MIPS Functions and Instruction Formats



The Contract: The MIPS Calling Convention

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- You write functions, your compiler writes functions, other compilers write functions...
 - And all your functions call other functions which call other functions
- We want them all to play nicely together
- Thus the MIPS Calling Convention
 - How do you pass arguments?
 - What registers and state are not changed between when you call the function and when it returns?



Why We Need it?

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```
• int sumSquare(int x, int y) {
   return mult(x,x)+ y;
}
```

- What happens when a function calls another function?
 - Would clobber values in \$a0 to \$a3 and \$ra
- What is the solution?
 - Need to save values on the stack



Optimized Function Convention

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- To reduce expensive loads and stores from spilling and restoring registers, MIPS divides registers into two categories
- Preserved across function call (Callee-saved)
 - Calling function can rely on values being unchanged when the called function returns
 - \$sp, \$gp, \$fp, "saved registers" \$s0-\$s7
- Not preserved across function call (Caller-saved)
 - Caller cannot rely on values being unchanged, so the caller must save them if needed across a function call
 - Return value registers \$v0,\$v1, Argument registers \$a0-\$a3, \$t0-\$t9,\$ra



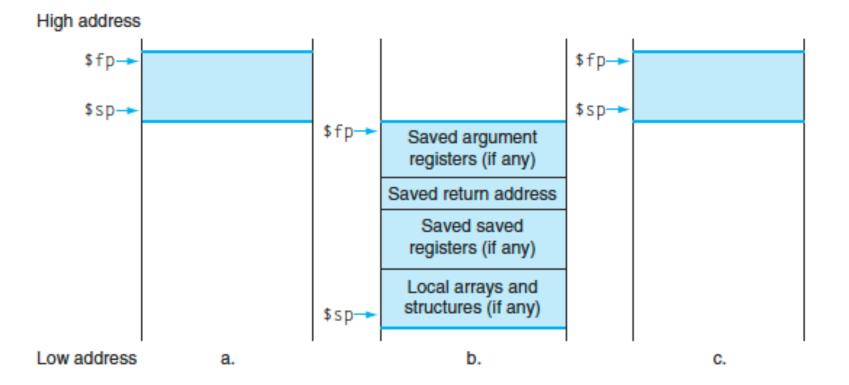
Allocating Space on Stack

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- C has two storage classes: automatic and static
 - Automatic variables are local to function and discarded when function exits
 - Static variables exist across exits from and entries to procedures
- Use the stack for automatic (local) variables that don't fit in registers
- Use the stack for all callee-saved registers used in the function
 - And then restore those values upon function exit
- Procedure frame or activation record: segment of stack with saved registers and local variables
- Some MIPS compilers use a frame pointer (\$fp) to point to first word of frame
- But in general we don't since, at any given point in the code, there is a fixed difference between the frame pointer and the stack pointer (\$sp)
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Stack Before, During, After Call

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Using the Stack (1/2)

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- So we have a register \$sp which always points to the last used space in the stack.
- To use the stack, we decrement this pointer by the amount of space we need and then fill it with info
 - And then when done, we restore anything that needs restoring before exit
- So, how do we compile this?

```
• int sumSquare(int x, int y) {
    return mult(x,x)+ y;
}
```



Using the Stack (2/2)

```
int sumSquare(int x, int y) {
  return mult(x,x)+ y; }
```

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```
Hand-compile
```

```
sumSquare:
   addi $sp,$sp,-8 # space on stack
"push" sw $ra, 4($sp) # save ret addr
   sw $a1, 0($sp) # save y
   add $a1,$a0,$zero # mult(x,x)
        jal mult # call mult
        lw $a1, 0($sp) # restore y
        add $v0,$v0,$a1 # mult()+y
        lw $ra, 4($sp) # get ret addr
"pop" addi $sp,$sp,8 # restore stack
   jr $ra
   mult: ...
```



Basic Structure of a Function

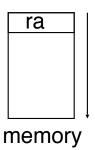
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Prologue

```
entry_label:
addi $sp,$sp, -framesize
sw $ra, framesize-4($sp) # save $ra
save other regs if need be

...

Body (call other functions...)
```



Epilogue

```
restore other regs if need be
lw $ra, framesize-4($sp) # restore $ra
addi $sp,$sp, framesize
jr $ra
```

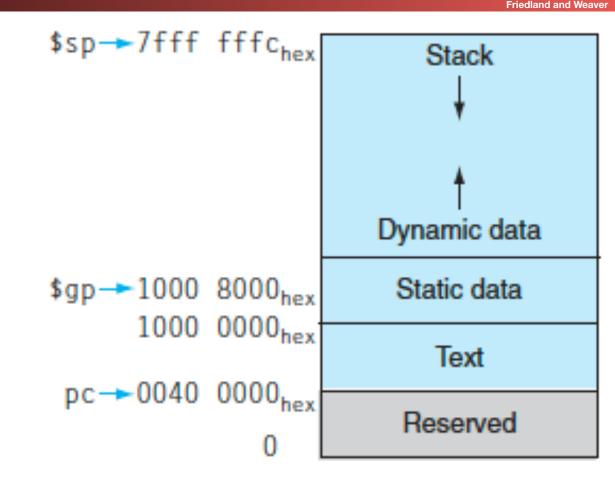


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MIPS Default Memory Allocation

 Text segment contains the code

- PC points to the start of it initially
- Stack grows down
 - \$sp points to the lowest element
- \$gp points to the start of static data





Register Allocation and Numbering

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Name	Register number	Usage	Preserved on call?
\$zero	0	The constant value 0	n.a.
\$v0-\$v1	2-3	Values for results and expression evaluation	no
\$a0-\$a3	4-7	Arguments	no
\$t0_\$t7	8-15	Temporaries	no
\$s0 - \$s7	16-23	Saved	yes
\$t8_\$t9	24-25	More temporaries	no
\$gp	28	Global pointer	yes
\$sp	29	Stack pointer	yes
\$fp	30	Frame pointer	yes
\$ra	31	Return address	yes

• \$1 reserved for assembler (\$at), \$26 and \$27 for the interrupt handler (\$k0 and \$k1)



Recursive Function Factorial

```
int fact (int n)
{
   if (n < 1) return (1);
     else return (n * fact(n-1));
}</pre>
```



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Recursive Function Factorial

```
Fact:
   # adjust stack for 2 items
   addi $sp,$sp,-8
   # save return address
   sw $ra, 4($sp)
   # save argument n
   sw $a0, 0($sp)
   # test for n < 1
   slti $t0,$a0,1
   \# if n >= 1, go to L1
   beq $t0,$zero,L1
   # Then part (n==1) return 1
   addi $v0,$zero,1
   # pop 2 items off stack
   addi $sp,$sp,8
   # return to caller
```

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```
L1:
 \# Else part (n >= 1)
 # arg. gets (n - 1)
 addi $a0,$a0,-1
 # call fact with (n - 1)
 jal Fact
 # return from jal: restore n
 lw $a0, 0($sp)
 # restore return address
 lw $ra, 4($sp)
 # adjust sp to pop 2 items
 addi $sp, $sp,8
 # return n * fact (n - 1)
 mul $v0,$a0,$v0 mul is a pseudo instruction
 # return to the caller
 jr $ra
```

The "Stack Overflow" Attack

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- Recall that C allocates variables on the stack
- And many c functions don't actually check that they are writing into valid memory...
- So what happens if you allocate an array on the stack...
 - And then call something that writes beyond the stack...

```
void foo() {
    char bar[32];
    ...
    gets(bar);
    ...
}
```



The Stack Overflow Continued...

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```
foo:addi $sp $sp -36
    # allocate space for
    # $ra and bar
    sw $ra $sp(32)
    ...
    # bar == $sp + 0
    addi $a0 $sp $0
    jal gets
    ...
    lw $ra $sp(32)
    add $sp $sp 36
    jr $ra
```

\$ra
bar[28:31]
bar[24:27]
bar[20:23]
bar[16:19]
bar[12:15]
bar[8:11]
bar[4:7]
bar[0:3]

- Now what if a "bad dude" choses the input into gets?
 - Well, they can overwrite \$ra and also add their own code past that point...
 - And make \$ra point to their own code...
- Voila, they've taken control!



Oh, and jalr...

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- We have j
 - "Jump to fixed address"
- jr
 - "Jump to address specified in register"
- jal
 - "Jump to this location and store PC+4 in \$ra"
- But we need one more: Jump and Link Register, jalr
 - "Jump to this register location and store PC+4 in \$ra"
- This is how we implement the pointers-to-functions ninjutsu!
 - char (*f) (char *, char *) = &foo

```
(*f) (
Berkeley EECS
```

(*f)("arg1", "arg2")-> jalr \$whateverFisStoredAt

Clickers/Peer Instruction

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Which Statement is True?

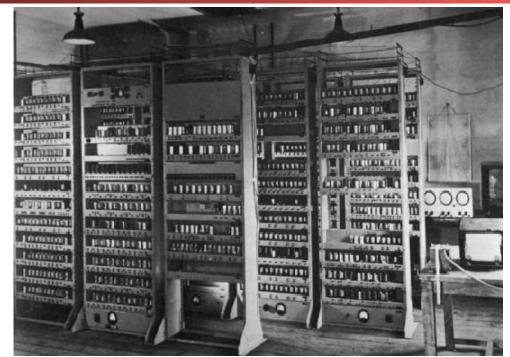
- a: \$sp points to the lowest address currently in use on the stack
- b: \$ra stores PC+4 saved by jal so that a program knows where to return to when a function exits
- c: \$t0-\$t9 are callee saved registers
- d: The classic stack overflow attack overwrites the saved return address on the stack with a new location
- e: Nick likes trolling students on clicker questions



EDSAC (Cambridge, 1949) First General Stored-Program Computer

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- Programs held as numbers in memory
- 35-bit binary 2's complement words





Consequence #1: Everything Addressed

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- Since all instructions and data are stored in memory, everything has a memory address: instructions, data words
 - both branches and jumps use these
- C pointers are just memory addresses: they can point to anything in memory
 - Unconstrained use of addresses can lead to nasty bugs; up to you in C; limited in Java by language design
- One register keeps address of instruction being executed: "Program Counter" (PC)
 - Basically a pointer to memory: Intel calls it Instruction Pointer (a better name)

Consequence #2: Binary Compatibility

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- Programs are distributed in binary form
 - Programs bound to specific instruction set
 - The "ABI": Application Binary Interface is a function of both the instruction set and the underlying operating system
 - Different binaries for Macintoshes and PCs
 - Different binaries for Linux i86 and Linux ARM
- New machines want to run old programs ("binaries") as well as programs compiled to new instructions
 - Leads to "backward-compatible" instruction set evolving over time
- Selection of Intel 8086 in 1981 for 1st IBM PC is major reason latest PCs still use 80x86 instruction set;
- the hardware can still run programs from a 1981 PC today Berkeley EECS

Instructions as Numbers (1/2)

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- Currently all data we work with is in words (32-bit chunks):
 - Each register is a word.
 - lw and sw both access memory one word at a time.
- So how do we represent instructions?
 - Remember: Computer only understands 1s and 0s, so "add \$t0,\$0,\$0" is meaningless.
 - MIPS/RISC seeks simplicity: since data is in words, make instructions be fixed-size 32-bit words also



Instructions as Numbers (2/2)

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- One word is 32 bits, so divide instruction word into "fields".
- Each field tells processor something about instruction.
- We could define different fields for each instruction, but MIPS seeks simplicity, so define 3 basic types of instruction formats:
 - R-format
 - I-format
 - J-format



Instruction Formats

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- I-format: used for instructions with immediates, 1w and sw (since offset counts as an immediate), and branches (beq and bne) since branches are "relative" to the PC
 - (but not the shift instructions)
- J-format: used for j and jal
- R-format: used for all other instructions
- It will soon become clear why the instructions have been partitioned in this way



R-Format Instructions (1/5)

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Define "fields" of the following number of bits each: 6 + 5 + 5
 + 5 + 5 + 6 = 32

For simplicity, each field has a name:

opcode	rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
				1	1

- Important: On these slides and in book, each field is viewed as a 5- or 6-bit unsigned integer, not as part of a 32-bit integer
 - Consequence: 5-bit fields can represent any number 0-31, while 6-bit fields can represent any number 0-63



R-Format Instructions (2/5)

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- What do these field integer values tell us?
 - opcode: partially specifies what instruction it is
 - Note: This number is equal to 0 for all R-Format instructions
 - funct: combined with opcode, this number exactly specifies the instruction

- Question: Why aren't opcode and funct a single 12-bit field?
 - We'll answer this later



R-Format Instructions (3/5)

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More fields:

- rs (Source Register): usually used to specify register containing first operand
- rt (Target Register): usually used to specify register containing second operand (note that name is misleading)
- rd (Destination Register): usually used to specify register which will receive result of computation



R-Format Instructions (4/5)

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Notes about register fields:

- Each register field is exactly 5 bits, which means that it can specify any unsigned integer in the range 0-31. Each of these fields specifies one of the 32 registers by number.
- The word "usually" was used because there are exceptions that we'll see later



R-Format Instructions (5/5)

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Final field:

- shamt: This field contains the amount a shift instruction will shift by. Shifting a 32-bit word by more than 31 is useless, so this field is only 5 bits (so it can represent the numbers 0-31)
- This field is set to 0 in all but the shift instructions
- For a detailed description of field usage for each instruction, see green insert in COD
 - (We will provide a copy of the "green sheet" on all exams)



R-Format Example (1/2)

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- MIPS Instruction:
 - add \$8,\$9,\$10
 - opcode = 0 (look up in table in book)
 - funct = 32 (look up in table in book)
 - rd = 8 (destination)
 - rs = 9 (first operand)
 - rt = 10 (second operand)
 - shamt = 0 (not a shift)



R-Format Example (2/2)

opcode rs	rt	rd	shamt	funct
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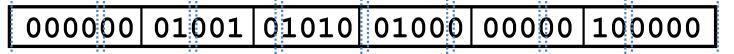
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- MIPS Instruction:
 - add \$8,\$9,\$10
 - Decimal number per field representation:

0	9	10	8	0	32
---	---	----	---	---	----

Binary number per field representation:



- hex representation:
- 0x012A 4020
- Called a Machine Language Instruction